

## Correlations Between Sea-Surface Salinity Tendencies and Freshwater Fluxes in the Pacific Ocean

Zhen Li and David Adamec

### Abstract

Temporal changes in sea-surface salinity (SSS) from 21 years of a high resolution model integration of the Pacific Ocean are correlated with the freshwater flux that was used to force the integration. The correlations are calculated on a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid, and on a monthly scale to assess the possibility of deducing evaporation minus precipitation (E-P) fields from the salinity measurements to be taken by the upcoming Aquarius/SAC-D mission. Correlations between the monthly mean E-P fields and monthly mean SSS temporal tendencies are mainly zonally-oriented, and are highest where the local precipitation is relatively high. Nonseasonal (deviations from the monthly mean) correlations are highest along mid-latitude storm tracks and are relatively small in the tropics. The response of the model's surface salinity to surface forcing is very complex, and retrievals of freshwater fluxes from SSS measurements alone will require consideration of other processes, including horizontal advection and vertical mixing, rather than a simple balance between the two.

## POPULAR SUMMARY

Title: Correlations Between Sea-Surface Salinity Tendencies and Freshwater Fluxes in the Pacific Ocean

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Summary: One of the goals of NASA's new mission to measure the global sea-surface salinity will be to determine how much of the temporal changes in sea-surface salinity is directly due to the additions and subtractions of fresh water to and from the ocean. Addition of freshwater is accomplished through precipitation, and subtraction through evaporation. Whereas precipitation can be measured from satellites, there is no current available technology for a direct measurement of evaporation from space. It is hoped that salinity changes would provide a useful proxy for these important freshwater fluxes, that among other things, determines the long climate-scale flows in the ocean known as the thermohaline circulation and the global ocean conveyor belt.

A sophisticated and realistic ocean computer model is forced with prescribed evaporation and precipitation fields. The computer-generated salinity fields are then used to determine how much of the changes in salinity are due to that forcing and how much of the changes are due to other processes such as movement of salt by ocean currents, or stirring of the surface waters by the wind. It turns out that the ocean computer model's response to the prescribed inputs is very complex, and simple balances between salinity changes and precipitation and evaporation fields are the exception as opposed to the rule. Retrieving freshwater additions and subtractions to the ocean will require careful consideration of the ocean currents, and how easily surface waters are stirred by the atmosphere.

1 **Correlations Between Sea-Surface Salinity Tendencies**  
2 **and Freshwater Fluxes in the Pacific Ocean**

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Temporal changes in sea-surface salinity (SSS) from 21 years of a high resolution model integration of the Pacific Ocean are correlated with the freshwater flux used to force the integration. The correlations are calculated on a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid, and on a monthly scale to assess the possibility of deducing evaporation minus precipitation (E-P) fields from the salinity measurements to be taken by the upcoming Aquarius/SAC-D mission. Correlations between the monthly mean E-P fields and monthly mean SSS temporal tendencies are mainly zonally-oriented, and are highest where the local precipitation is relatively high. Nonseasonal (deviations from the monthly mean) correlations are highest along mid-latitude storm tracks and are relatively small in the tropics. The response of the model's surface salinity to surface forcing is very complex, and retrievals of freshwater fluxes from SSS measurements will require consideration of other processes, including horizontal advection and vertical mixing.

## 1. Introduction

20 The science goals of the joint United States-Argentina sea-surface salinity (SSS) observ-  
21 ing mission, Aquarius/SAC-D, are to understand the role of salinity variations in climatic  
22 processes, and to understand how salinity variations influence the ocean's general circula-  
23 tion (Lagerloef *et al.*, 2002; Koblinsky *et al.*, 2003). To attain these goals, it is envisioned  
24 that accurate maps of the flux of freshwater between the ocean and atmosphere, usu-  
25 ally represented as the difference between evaporation and precipitation (E-P), will be  
26 derivable from the temporal changes in SSS observed by Aquarius/SAC-D.

27 The mission science requirement of Aquarius/SAC-D is to deliver measurements of the  
28 global SSS at a spatial resolution of 100 km every month. The nominal accuracy of those  
29 SSS measurements is to be no worse than 0.2 - 0.3 practical salinity units (psu). The  
30 approximate 30-day temporal resolution is too long to capture fast ocean processes such  
31 as entrainment and detrainment in the mixed layer, and possibly too long for determin-  
32 ing the effects of horizontal advection when the advecting velocities exceed 4cm/s ( $\sim$   
33 100km/30days). Thus, obtaining reliable E-P estimates from surface salinity changes will  
34 rely on the effects of fast, i.e., faster than 30 days (e.g., tropical instability waves or wind  
35 stirring), ocean processes acting randomly that do not introduce their own relatively large  
36 time-integrated tendencies in the SSS.

37 Delcroix *et al.* (1996) examine the relationship between temporal changes in the ob-  
38 served SSS provided by ships of opportunity and rainfall estimates derived from satellite  
39 outgoing longwave radiation, and find a good correspondence between the two in areas  
40 with the heaviest precipitation, i.e., the Intertropical and South Pacific convergence zones

41 (ITCZ and SPCZ). That study averaged data into  $10^\circ$  zonal by  $2.5^\circ$  meridional boxes  
42 and temporally smoothed the monthly input data. Though not formally calculated, the  
43 Delcroix *et al.* study estimates the effect of evaporation would be 30-50% of precipitation  
44 changes in the convergence zones, and the effect of advection is responsible for 25% of the  
45 local salinity balance near strong currents.

46 Wijffels (2001) compares 13 different climatological estimates of E-P and finds that  
47 differences between products can have a global standard deviation as large as 250mm/yr,  
48 and regional differences as large as 500mm/yr. The largest deviations occur predominantly  
49 over the tropics and the mid-latitude storm tracks. The deviations between the E-P  
50 estimates in that study are mainly due to differing estimates of precipitation over the  
51 ocean. The estimates of evaporation, a derived quantity, vary much less than precipitation  
52 estimates. The Wijffels study clearly identifies a need for consistent estimates of E-P, even  
53 for an annual mean temporal scale.

54 In this study, a state-of-the-art numerical model is used to simulate variability in the  
55 Pacific Ocean. Model surface salinities from a 21-year (1984-2004) period are used to in-  
56 vestigate the viability of deriving E-P fields from surface salinity at temporal and spatial  
57 resolutions commensurate with Aquarius/SAC-D. The viability is determined by calcu-  
58 lating the correlation coefficient between the local temporal changes in the upper most  
59 layer salinity and the E-P fields used to force the model. Results for both the seasonal  
60 and nonseasonal correlations are presented.

## 2. Model Setup

61 The ocean integration utilizes the Modular Ocean Model (MOM) version 4.0 (Griffies  
62 *et al.*, 2005). The domain extends 45°S to 50°N and 120°E to 70°W. For simplicity,  
63 all lateral boundaries are closed, even though the exchange of salt that occurs in reality  
64 between the Indian and Pacific oceans may be locally relevant and affects conclusions of  
65 this study there. The horizontal resolution is  $1/4^\circ$ , and the model has 43 vertical levels.  
66 The vertical resolution is 10 m in the upper 220m, and increases to a maximum of  $\sim 500$ m  
67 in the deepest ocean. Bottom topography derives from Smith and Sandwell's (1997) 2.5'  
68 product. The minimum water depth is 100m.

69 The model initializes with the Levitus 1998 (Levitus *et al.*, 1998) annual mean clima-  
70 tology of temperature and salinity and spins-up for 30 years forced by the NCEP-STR  
71 air-sea flux climatology (Doney *et al.*, 1998). The integration then runs for 41 years  
72 (1964-2004) using monthly average wind forcing, surface heat and freshwater fluxes from  
73 the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis 1 Data (Kalnay *et al.*, 1996). To avoid possible transient  
74 effects after switching to NCEP/NCAR monthly forcing, only model output from last 21  
75 years (1984-2004) of the integration is used in this investigation. The integration uses the  
76 standard default settings for mixing parameters (Griffies *et al.*, 2005), including a KPP  
77 option for the surface mixed layer parameterization. To avoid drift in the model climatol-  
78 ogy, a tendency based on the difference between the modeled and observed monthly mean  
79 salinity and temperature fields is included. The model surface temperature is relaxed to  
80 monthly mean climatology with a  $30\text{-day}^{-1}$  damping scale. The surface salinity employs a

weaker 240-day<sup>-1</sup> damping scale that allows for realistic variability at annual and longer time scales.

### 3. Forced Surface Layer Salinity Variability

The simulated SSS at the model's 1/4°x1/4° resolution is averaged to a 1°x1° grid to match the nominal Aquarius/SAC-D resolution. Evaporation is computed from the latent heat flux data from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis. Evaporation and precipitation fields are interpolated from their original 1.875° x 1.9047° resolution to the coincident 1°x1° SSS grid.

Two calculations of correlations are presented. The first calculation uses monthly mean values for input, and those inputs and correlations are referred to here as “seasonal”. The second correlation uses deviations from monthly mean values and is referred here to as “nonseasonal”. For seasonal correlations, values above 0.53 are significant at the 95% confidence level, and for nonseasonal correlations, values above 0.125 are significant at the 95% level.

The standard deviation of seasonal E-P (Figure 1a) has variability that is mainly zonally-oriented. The largest standard deviations occur off the west coast of Central America where precipitation has a marked summertime peak due to convection. This area is also a genesis area for hurricane formation in the east Pacific. There are local maxima in the standard deviations at about 18° latitude in each hemisphere extending out from the western boundary. Off the east coast of Australia, the larger standard deviations are due to large values of summertime precipitation and activity associated with the SPCZ. Near the Philippines, the larger standard deviations are more associated with the



102 seasonal meridional migration of a local maximum in precipitation. East of the dateline,  
103 there are local maxima at about  $5^{\circ}$  latitude associated with precipitation along a north-  
104 ern and southern branch of the ITCZ. There are also local maxima in the North Pacific  
105 along the winter time storm track. The equator and warm pool are areas of low seasonal  
106 variability.

107 The nonseasonal E-P standard deviations (Figure 1b) have maximum variability that is  
108 located almost entirely in the tropics west of  $160^{\circ}\text{W}$ . Variability associated with El Nino  
109 Southern Oscillation (ENSO) events is responsible for the larger standard deviations in  
110 the warm pool. The effects of ENSO reach into the SPCZ and the high variability of  
111 precipitation area off the east coast of the Philippines. The warm and cold sea surface  
112 temperatures caused by ENSO in the east Pacific affect the local convective activity and  
113 hurricane generation off the west coast of Panama, and South America, and that variability  
114 is also evident in the non-seasonal standard deviations of E-P.

115 The standard deviations of the seasonal SSS temporal tendencies (Figure 1c) are mainly  
116 zonally oriented as were the seasonal standard deviations in E-P. The largest values are in  
117 the eastern equatorial Pacific and near the Korean peninsula that is a natural response to  
118 strong E-P forcing from local monsoonal variability. Curiously, this area was not an area  
119 of relatively large E-P forcing. The nearby Kuroshio plays an important role for SSS in  
120 this area. The nonseasonal standard deviations (Figure 1d) are of larger spatial scale than  
121 the seasonal variability. The largest standard deviations are in the eastern and western  
122 tropics and are related to ENSO variability. The minimum in the tropics near  $150^{\circ}\text{W}$  is  
123 consistent with the area being a pivot point of the normal see saw pattern of variability

124 in the eastern and western tropical Pacific during an ENSO event. The maximum in  
125 the western tropical Pacific is consistent with model calculations performed by Wang and  
126 Chao (2004) who showed a maximum in interannual variability of SSS there with RMS  
127 values approaching 0.5 psu.

128 The correlations between the seasonal SSS temporal tendencies and seasonal E-P (Fig-  
129 ure 2a) are, not surprisingly, zonally-oriented as were the seasonal signals of the individual  
130 fields of standard deviations. What is surprising is that some of the correlations are neg-  
131 ative indicating processes that lead, for example, to surface water becoming more saline  
132 during periods of less evaporation and more precipitation. It is much easier to compre-  
133 hend and justify positive correlations when considering the local effect of E-P on salinity  
134 tendencies.

135 In areas of greater seasonal variability of E-P, specifically off the Central American  
136 coast, and near 18° latitude in the western Pacific, the seasonal correlations are strongly  
137 positive. These correlations are consistent with the Delcroix *et al.* (1996) study who show  
138 consistency on large spatial scales between areas of higher precipitation and negative  
139 salinity tendencies. Here, the correlations are also strongly positive along the northern  
140 and southern branches of the ITCZ, and along the southern edge of the wintertime Pacific  
141 storm track, again in areas of higher precipitation. The southern edge of the storm track  
142 is an area of greater precipitation as the synoptic systems are able to tap into moisture  
143 provide by the subtropical jet. This explanation provides a rationalization of why the  
144 highest correlations are south of the high E-P variability, but does not explain why higher  
145 E-P variability is located further to the north. More detailed analyses that involve the

146 distribution of evaporation associated with the storm track, salinity changes brought about  
147 by the Ekman upwelling induced along the storm track and horizontal advective processes  
148 need to be accounted for in order to provide a full explanation, and is out of the scope of  
149 the present study.

150 As noted above, there are areas where the seasonal correlation between E-P and salinity  
151 tendency is negative. In particular, an area along the equator in the eastern Pacific has a  
152 very strong negative correlation. This area upwells strongly due to the divergent winds.  
153 An investigation of precipitation events in this region revealed those events were also  
154 accompanied by stronger surface winds that force increased upwelling. For this region, the  
155 freshening of the surface water by the precipitation is masked by an increased upwelling,  
156 which tends to bring higher salinity water from below. Note that the equatorial eastern  
157 Pacific has shallow mixed layers, and is more susceptible to wind forcing and stirring that  
158 brings higher saline waters to the surface. Increased upwelling in areas of shallow mixed  
159 layers is a likely explanation for the negative correlations in the areas in the vicinity of  
160 the cold tongue, off the coast of Baja, and the zonal strip north of the ITCZ where mixed  
161 layers are shallow. Definitive answers to any area's correlation would require a more  
162 detailed analysis of the local salt balances.

163 The correlations between nonseasonal SSS temporal tendencies and E-P (Figure 2b)  
164 are relatively small between the 20° latitude circles, and they are particularly low along  
165 the equator. Like the SSS temporal tendencies variability, the scales of low and high  
166 correlations are larger spatial scale than the seasonal correlations. The highest correlations  
167 occur in the mid-latitudes along the wintertime storm tracks for both hemispheres.

168 The effect of precipitation alone on surface salinity changes is also considered. The  
169 correlation between precipitation alone and salinity tendencies (not shown here) closely  
170 resembles the correlations with E-P over most areas of the Pacific Ocean for both the  
171 seasonal and nonseasonal signals. The most significant deviation occurs in the seasonal  
172 correlations off the east coast of Japan south of the Kuroshio Extension. This area is the  
173 location where cold air outbreaks from the Asian continent first encounters the warmer  
174 subtropical waters south of the Kuroshio front. It is an area of large evaporation and  
175 largest latent heat fluxes in the Pacific. Except for this location where the correlations  
176 are lower, most of the correlations are very similar to the correlations calculated using  
177 E-P.

178 There is consistency between the results of this study and the study by Delcroix *et al.*  
179 (1996). Both studies show a high positive correlation between SSS temporal tendencies  
180 and E-P in areas of relatively larger rainfall. The difference between the two studies is that  
181 the Delcroix *et al.* (1996) study emphasizes larger spatial scales by working with monthly  
182 data averaged to  $10^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$  boxes, and then looking for similarity from the two leading  
183 modes of an empirical orthogonal function EOF decomposition. This study also shows  
184 relatively strong positive correlations in areas of largest precipitation even though the  
185 calculations are performed with the finer,  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ , resolution. However, this study reveals  
186 finer scale correlation structure with a strong zonal orientation of SSS temporal tendencies  
187 and E-P correlations that includes areas where the correlations are negative, particularly  
188 in the seasonal signal. This study indicates that extreme care needs to be taken to infer  
189 E-P from SSS temporal tendencies away from areas of strongest precipitation.

190 Finally, because only a 4 cm/s advecting velocity is required to move properties across a  
191  $1^\circ$  grid box, the role of horizontal advection of SSS tendencies is considered. The seasonal  
192 correlations between the salinity temporal tendencies and horizontal advection (Figure  
193 3a) have a similar zonally oriented structure to the E-P calculations. Of note here, the  
194 correlations are particularly strong in the tropics west of  $160^\circ\text{W}$  and in the subtropical  
195 North Pacific. In other areas, the correlation spatial scale is shorter. The nonseasonal  
196 correlations (Figure 3b) are more strongly correlated than are the correlations with E-P in  
197 most areas. Of particular interest is a local maximum in the area on the equator between  
198  $165^\circ\text{E}$  and  $160^\circ\text{W}$ . This local maximum is consistent with a study by Delcroix and Picaut  
199 (1998) who find surface salinity advection by anomalous zonal, equatorial currents to be  
200 the dominant mechanism for surface salinity variations during stronger ENSO events.  
201 The stronger nonseasonal correlations in most areas indicate that horizontal advection  
202 may somehow need to be estimated for accurate E-P determination from Aquarius/SAC-  
203 D measurements for accurate representation of these longer time scales.

#### 4. Summary and Conclusions

204 The possibility of determining E-P fields from temporal changes in sea-surface salinity is  
205 examined using a state-of-the-art numerical model of the Pacific Ocean. The model is in-  
206 tegrated with  $0.25^\circ$  horizontal resolution but the viability of obtaining E-P fields is studied  
207 using horizontal and spatial sampling commensurate with the upcoming Aquarius/SAC-D  
208 mission. For seasonal variability, the patterns of the correlations between E-P and SSS  
209 temporal tendencies tend to be zonally-oriented and are highest where the local precip-  
210 itation is also relatively high. The result is consistent with a study by Delcroix *et al.*

(1996) who show this to be the case for large horizontal scales in the tropical Pacific. This numerical study not only shows the same conclusion for shorter spatial scales, but it also shows that the areas between local precipitation maxima have low correlations, and sometimes those correlations may be negative if mixed-layers are shallow and winds induce vertical mixing or upwelling. For the nonseasonal signal, the correlations are highest in the mid-latitudes with relatively smaller correlations in the tropics.

Because Aquarius/SAC-D will return monthly SSS values, the role of horizontal advection's driving SSS temporal tendencies was investigated using a similar correlation analysis. The seasonal correlations have a similar zonal orientation to the E-P correlations, but the advection correlations in the Eastern tropical Pacific are higher than the E-P correlations there. The nonseasonal correlations with horizontal advection are relatively higher than all other correlations calculated. The nonseasonal advective correlations include an area on the equator between 165°E and 160°W where Delcroix and Picaut (1998) determine that horizontal advection is the dominant mechanism for driving salinity variability during ENSO events.

Although inferring E-P from local changes in surface salinity may not be easily attained globally, the high correlation between E-P and salinity changes in areas of high precipitation is encouraging. However, estimating E-P in only those areas would require prior knowledge of the P field itself. Further studies that center on dividing the spatial regime along levels of precipitation would seem a next logical step. Also, careful analysis of the entire salinity balance would be necessary for assessing the reliability of E-P estimates derived from sampling such as will be delivered by the Aquarius/SAC-D mission.

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261 **LIST OF FIGURES**

262 Figure 1. Standard deviations of (a) seasonal E-P (mm/month), (b) nonseasonal E-P  
 263 (mm/month), (c) seasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  (psu/month) and (d) nonseasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  (psu/month).  
 264 For this calculation, one month is equal to 30 days.

265 Figure 2. (a) Correlations between seasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and seasonal E-P, and (b)  
 266 correlations between nonseasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and nonseasonal E-P. For seasonal correlations,  
 267 values above 0.53 are significant at the 95% confidence level, and for nonseasonal  
 268 correlations, values above 0.125 are significant at the 95% level.

269 Figure 3. (a) Correlations between mean seasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and mean seasonal surface  
 270 salinity advection,  $-(uS_x + vS_y)$ , and (b) correlations between nonseasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and  
 271 nonseasonal surface salinity advection,  $-(uS_x + vS_y)$ . For seasonal correlations, values  
 272 above 0.53 are significant at the 95% confidence level, and for nonseasonal correlations,  
 273 values above 0.125 are significant at the 95% level.

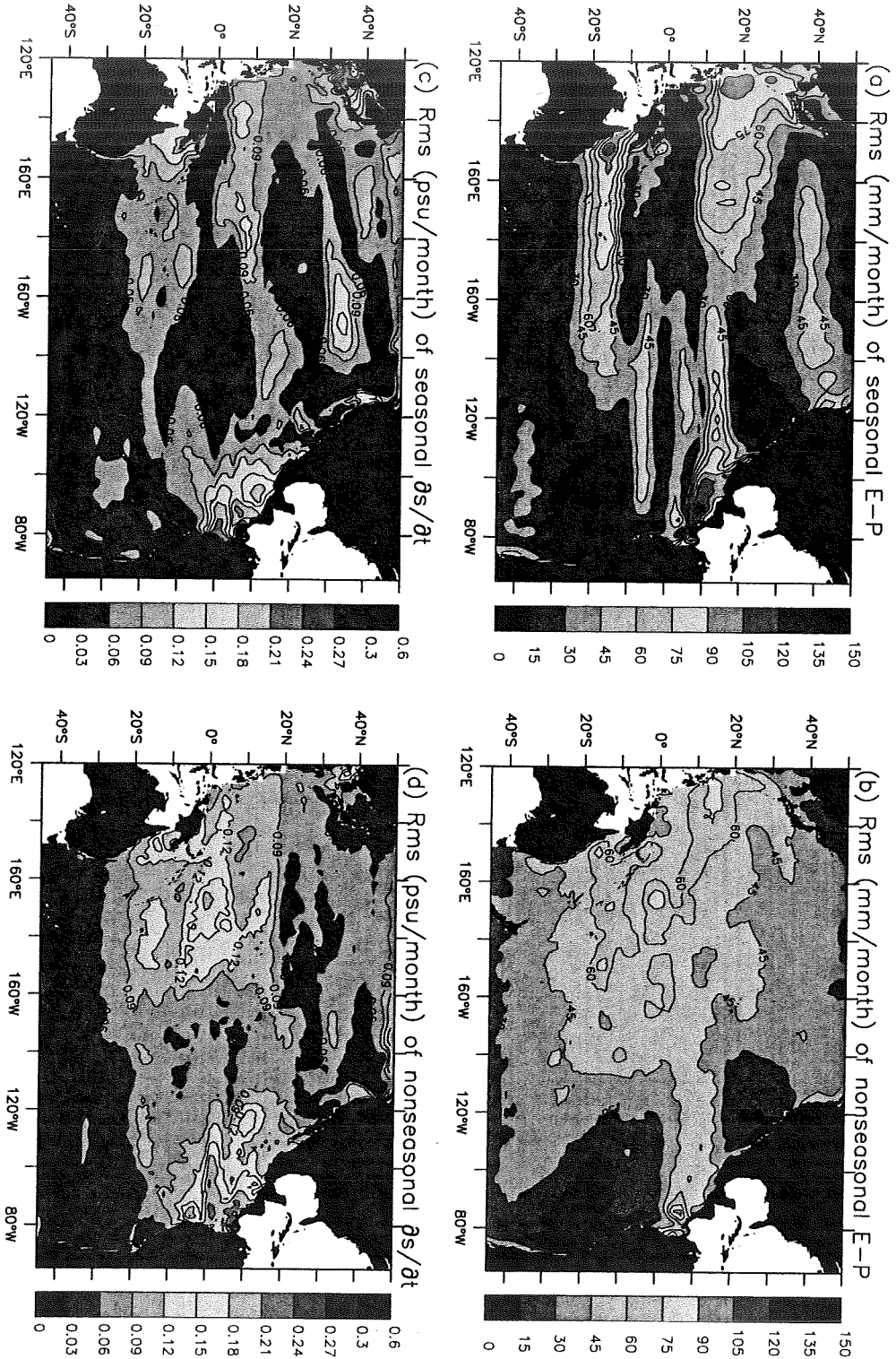
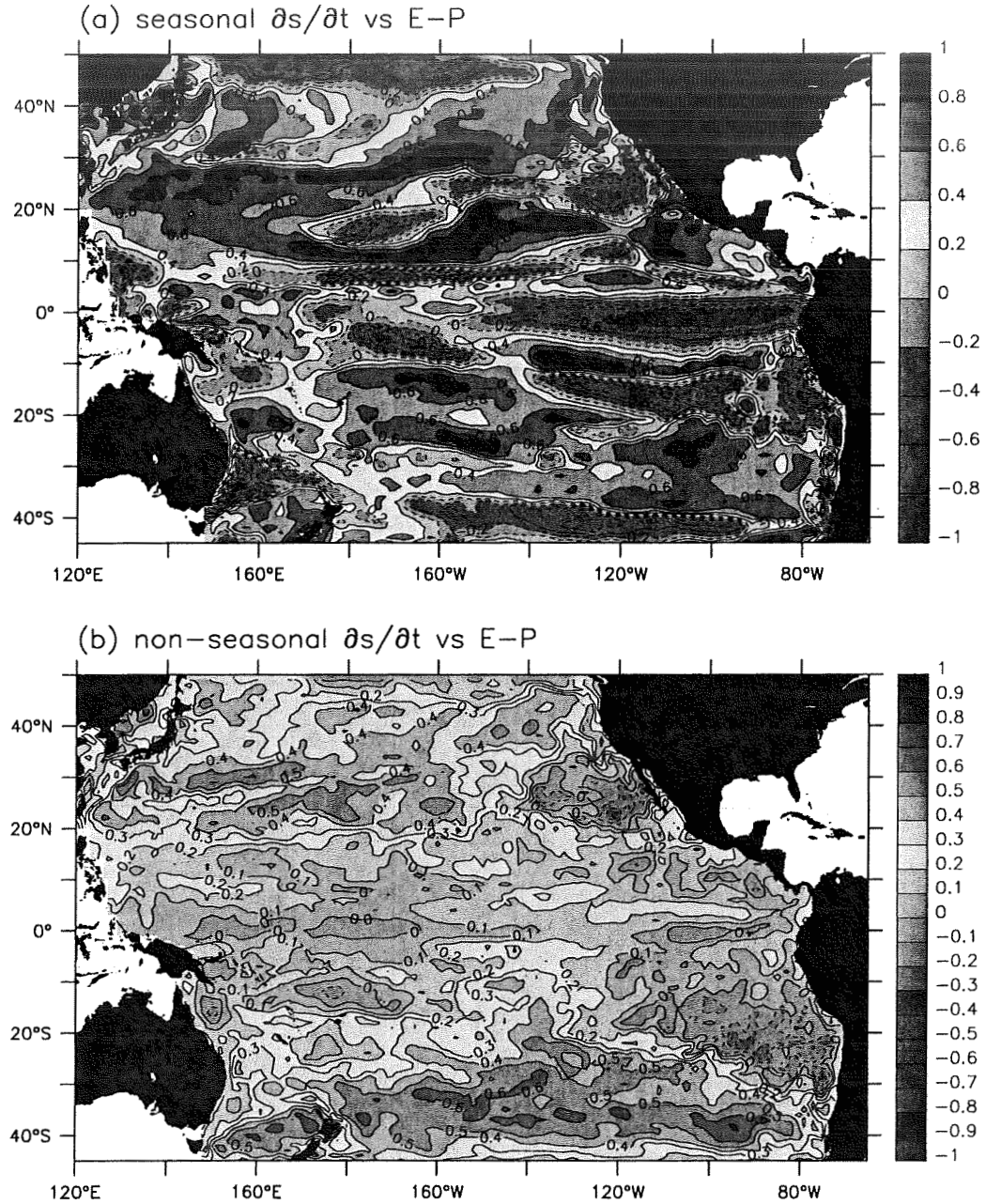
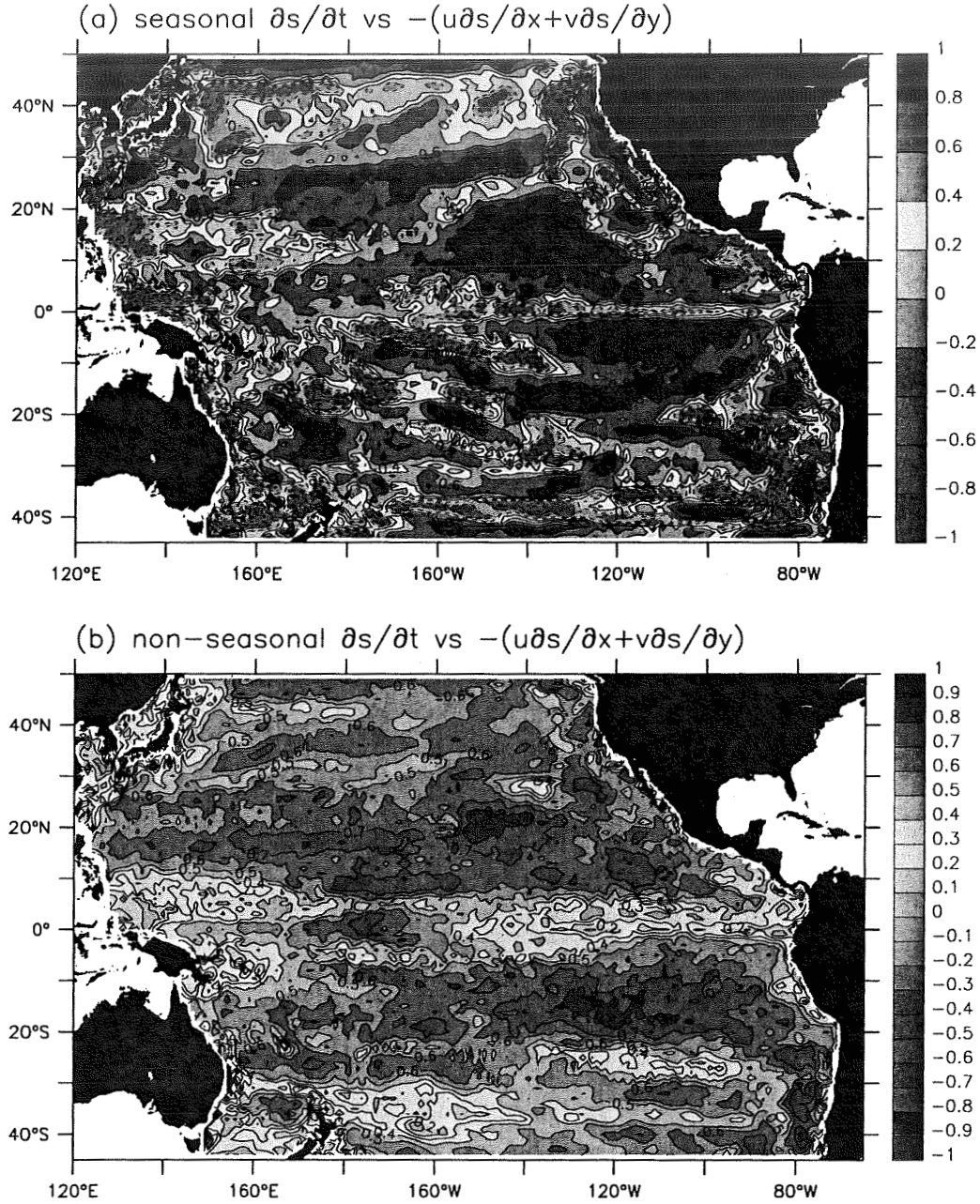


Figure 1. Standard deviations of (a) seasonal E-P (mm/month), (b) nonseasonal E-P (mm/month), (c) seasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  (psu/month) and (d) nonseasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  (psu/month). For this calculation, one month is equal to 30 days.



**Figure 2.** (a) Correlations between seasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and seasonal E-P, and (b) correlations between nonseasonal  $\partial S/\partial t$  and nonseasonal E-P. For seasonal correlations, values above 0.53 are significant at the 95% confidence level, and for nonseasonal correlations, values above 0.125 are significant at the 95% level.



**Figure 3.** (a) Correlations between seasonal  $\partial S / \partial t$  and seasonal surface salinity advection,  $-(uS_x + vS_y)$ , and (b) correlations between nonseasonal  $\partial S / \partial t$  and nonseasonal surface salinity advection,  $-(uS_x + vS_y)$ . For seasonal correlations, values above 0.53 are significant at the 95% confidence level, and for nonseasonal correlations, values above 0.125 are significant at the 95% level.

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